Lecture 2

Basic Radiometric Quantities. The Beer-Bouguer-Lambert law.

Concepts of extinction (scattering plus absorption) and emission.

Schwarzschild's equation.

Objectives:

- Basic introduction to electromagnetic field: Definitions, dual nature of electromagnetic radiation, electromagnetic spectrum.
- 2. Basic radiometric quantities: energy, intensity, and flux.
- The Beer-Bouguer-Lambert law. Concepts of extinction (scattering + absorption) and emission. Optical depth.
- 4. Simple aspects of radiative transfer: Schwarzschild's radiative transfer equation.

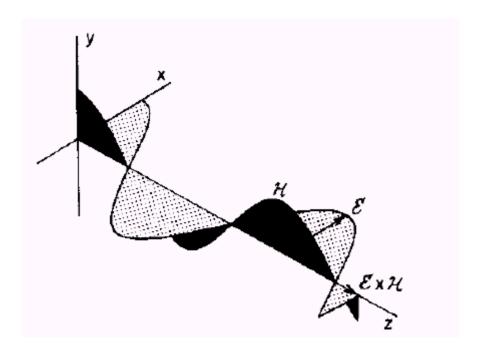
Required reading:

L02: 1.1, 1.4

1. Basic introduction to electromagnetic field.

Electromagnetic radiation is a form of transmitted energy. *Electromagnetic radiation* is so-named because it has electric and magnetic fields that simultaneously oscillate in planes mutually perpendicular to each other and to the direction of propagation through space.

- Radiation properties: Intensity, Phase, Polarization.
- Radiation depends on: Frequency, Space, Time, Direction.



Electromagnetic radiation exhibits the dual nature:

wave properties and particulate properties.

Wave nature of radiation: radiation can be thought of as a traveling wave.

Electromagnetic waves are characterized by wavelength (or frequency) and speed.

• The speed of light in a vacuum: $c = 2.9979 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} \cong 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$

The Spectrum

• Wavelength λ related to frequency $\tilde{\nu}$ and speed of light c by

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{\tilde{\nu}}$$
 $c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \,\mathrm{m/s}$

• Wavenumber ν is number of waves in a given length (usually 1 cm) and is proportional to frequency:

$$\nu = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{10000 \text{ cm}^{-1} \, \mu \text{m}}{\lambda}$$

Example: 8-12 μ m atmospheric window is 833-1250 cm⁻¹.

We will mainly use wavelength and wavenumber. Wavenumber is used especially for molecular absorption spectroscopy.

Wavelength, λ , is the distance between two consecutive peaks or troughs in a wave.

Frequency, \tilde{v} , is defined as the number of waves (*cycles*) per second that pass a given point in space.

Wavenumber, *v*, is defined as a count of the number of wave crests (or troughs) in a given unit of length.

Relation between
$$\lambda$$
, ν and $\widetilde{\nu}$:

$$v = \widetilde{v}/c = 1/\lambda$$

[2.1]

UNITS:

Wavelength units: LENGTH,

Angstrom (A): $1 \text{ A} = 1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m};$

Nanometer (nm): 1 nm=1x10⁻⁹ m;

Micrometer (μ m): 1 μ m = 1x10⁻⁶ m;

Frequency units: unit cycles per second 1/s (or s⁻¹) is called hertz (abbreviated Hz)

Wavenumber units: LENGTH-1 (often in cm-1)

Spectrum of electromagnetic radiation

Table 2.1 Relationships between radiation components studied in this course.

Name of	Wavelength	Spectral equivalence
spectral	region, µm	
region		
Solar	0.1 - 4	Ultraviolet + Visible + Near infrared = Shortwave
Terrestrial	4 - 100	Far infrared = Longwave
Infrared	0.75 - 100	Near infrared + Far infrared
Ultraviolet	0.1 - 0.38	Near ultraviolet + Far ultraviolet =
		UV-A + UV-B + UV-C + Far ultraviolet
Shortwave	0.1 - 4	Solar = Near infrared + Visible + Ultraviolet
Longwave	4 - 100	Terrestrial = Far infrared
Visible	0.38 - 0.75	Shortwave - Near infrared - Ultraviolet
Near infrared	0.75 - 4	Solar - Visible - Ultraviolet =
		Infrared - Far infrared
Far infrared	4 - 100	Terrestrial = Longwave = Infrared - Near infrared
Thermal	4 - 100	Terrestrial = Longwave = Far infrared

NOTE: $V[cm^{-1}] = \frac{10000cm^{-1}\mu m}{\lambda[\mu m]}$

EXAMPLE: 8-12 μm atmospheric window is 833-1250 cm⁻¹

Particulate nature of radiation:

Radiation can be also described in terms of particles of energy, called **photons**.

The energy of a **photon** is given by the expression:

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{photon}} = h \ \widetilde{v} = h \ \mathbf{c}/\lambda = h \ c\mathbf{v}$$
 [2.2],

where h is Plank's constant ($h = 6.6256 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$).

NOTE: Plank's constant *h* is very small!

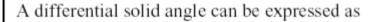
- Eq. [2.2] relates energy of each photon of the radiation to the electromagnetic wave characteristics (ν and λ).
- The quantized nature of light is most important when considering absorption of radiation by atoms and molecules.

2. Basic radiometric quantities.

<u>Solid angle</u> is the angle subtended at the center of a sphere by an area on its surface numerically equal to the square of the radius

$$\Omega = \frac{\sigma}{r^2}$$

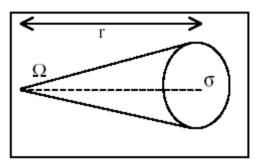
UNITS: of a solid angle = steradian (sr)



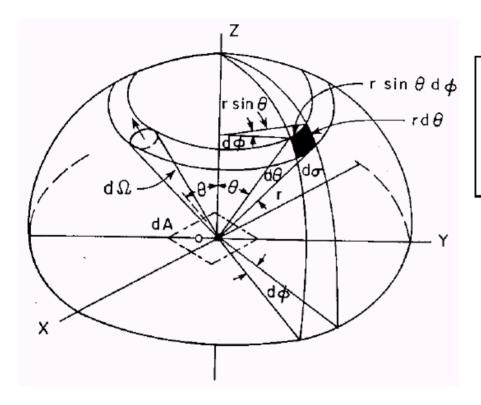
$$d\Omega = \frac{d\sigma}{r^2} = \sin(\theta) d\theta d\phi ,$$

using that a differential area is

$$d\sigma = (r d\theta) (r \sin(\theta) d\phi)$$



Change of variables: use (μ,ϕ) for directions, $\mu = \cos\theta \ d\Omega = d\mu d\phi$ Solid angle for all directions: $\Omega = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{-1}^{+1} d\mu d\phi = 4\pi$ $\mu = 1 \ (\theta = 0)$ is towards zenith, $\mu = -1 \ (\theta = 180)$ is towards nadir, $\mu = 0 \ (\theta = 90)$ is towards horizon. Warning: sometimes we will keep $\mu > 0$ even for downwelling. Illustration of differential solid angle $d\Omega$ in spherical coordinates for cone of radiation around zenith angle θ and azimuth angle ϕ .



A differential solid angle can be expressed as

$$d\Omega = \frac{d\sigma}{r^2} = \sin(\theta) d\theta d\phi ,$$

using that a differential area is

$$d\sigma = (r d\theta) (r \sin(\theta) d\phi)$$

EXAMPLE: Solid angle of a unit sphere = 4π

EXAMPLE: What is the solid angle of the Sun from the Earth if the distance from the Sun from the Earth is $d=1.5 \times 10^8$ km and Sun's radius is $R_s=6.96 \times 10^5$ km.

$$\Omega = \frac{\pi R_s^2}{d^2} = 6.76 \, \text{x} 10^{-5} \, \text{sr}$$

Intensity

Intensity (or radiance) is defined as radiant energy in a given direction per unit time per unit wavelength (or frequency) range per unit solid angle per unit area perpendicular to the given direction:

$$I_{\lambda} = \frac{dE_{\lambda}}{\cos(\theta)d\Omega dt dA d\lambda}$$
 [2.3]

 I_{λ} is referred to as **monochromatic** intensity.

 Monochromatic does not mean at a single wavelengths λ, but in a very narrow (infinitesimal) range of wavelength Δλ centered at λ.

NOTE: <u>same name</u>: intensity = specific intensity = radiance

UNITS: from Eq.[2.3]:

$$(J \sec^{-1} \operatorname{sr}^{-1} \operatorname{m}^{-2} \mu \operatorname{m}^{-1}) = (W \operatorname{sr}^{-1} \operatorname{m}^{-2} \mu \operatorname{m}^{-1})$$

Properties of Intensity

- In general, intensity is a function of the coordinates (r̄), direction (Ω̄),
 wavelength (or frequency), and time. Thus, it depends on seven independent
 variables: three in space, two in angle, one in wavelength (or frequency) and one
 in time.
- Intensity, as a function of position and direction, gives a complete description of the electromagnetic field.
- If intensity does not depend on the direction, the electromagnetic field is said to be isotropic. If intensity does not depend on position the field is said to be homogeneous.

Flux or irradiance

Flux (or irradiance) is defined as radiant energy in a given direction per unit time per unit wavelength (or frequency) range per unit area perpendicular to the given direction:

$$F_{\lambda} = \frac{dE_{\lambda}}{dt dA d\lambda}$$
 [2.4]

UNITS: from Eq.[2.4]:

$$(J \text{ sec}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2} \mu \text{m}^{-1}) = (W \text{ m}^{-2} \mu \text{m}^{-1})$$

From Eqs. [2.3]-[2.4]:
$$F_{\lambda} = \int_{\Omega} I_{\lambda} \cos(\theta) d\Omega$$
 [2.5]

Thus, monochromatic **flux** is the integration of normal component of monochromatic **intensity** over some solid angle.

 Monochromatic upwelling (upward) hemispherical flux on a horizontal plane is the integration of normal component of monochromatic intensity over the all solid angles in the upper hemisphere. Eq. [2.5] in spherical coordinates gives:

$$F_{\lambda}^{\ \uparrow} = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} I_{\lambda}(\theta, \varphi) \cos(\theta) \sin(\theta) d\theta d\varphi = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{1} I_{\lambda}(\mu, \varphi) \mu d\mu d\varphi$$

where $\mu = cos(\theta)$

Example: The normal incidence spectral solar flux at 0.5 μ m at the orbit of the Earth is 1962 W m⁻² μ m⁻¹. If the solar flux is converted to isotropic radiance with a reflective diffuser having 100% efficiency, what is the radiance? Since isotropic radiance is independent of direction, the hemispheric flux is

$$F_{\lambda} = I_{\lambda} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{1} \mu \ d\mu d\phi = \pi I_{\lambda}$$

Therefore the radiance is $I_{\lambda} = (1962 \text{ W m}^{-2} \, \mu \text{m}^{-1})/\pi = 625 \text{ W m}^{-2} \, \text{sr}^{-1} \, \mu \text{m}^{-1}$.

Monochromatic **net flux** is the integration of normal component of monochromatic **intensity** over the all solid angles (over 4π). **Net flux** for a horizontal plane is the difference in **upwelling and downwelling hemispherical fluxes**:

$$F_{\text{\tiny net},\lambda} = F_{\lambda}^{\uparrow} - F_{\lambda}^{\downarrow} = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{-1}^{1} I_{\lambda}(\mu, \varphi) \mu d\mu d\varphi$$

Spectral integration

Integral (or total) intensity I and flux F are determined by integrating over the
wavelength the monochromatic intensity and flux, respectively:

$$I = \int_{0}^{\infty} I_{\lambda} d\lambda \qquad F = \int_{0}^{\infty} F_{\lambda} d\lambda$$

• Intensities and fluxes may be per wavelength or per wavenumber. Since intensity across a spectral interval must be the same, we have $I_{\lambda}d\lambda = I_{\nu}d\nu$ and thus

$$I_{\nu} = I_{\lambda} \left| \frac{d\lambda}{d\nu} \right| = I_{\lambda} \frac{1}{\nu^2} = I_{\lambda} \lambda^2$$

EXAMPLE: Convert between radiance in *per wavelength* to radiance *per wavenumber* units at $\lambda = 10 \, \mu \text{m}$. Given $I_{\lambda} = 9.9 \, \text{W m}^{-2} \, \text{sr}^{-1} \mu \text{m}^{-1}$. What is I_{ν} ? $I_{\nu} = (9.9 \, \text{W m}^{-2} \, \text{sr}^{-1} \mu \text{m}^{-1}) (10 \, \mu \text{m}) (10^{-3} \, \text{cm}) = 0.099 \, \text{W m}^{-2} \, \text{sr}^{-1} (\text{cm}^{-1})^{-1}$

Radiance vs. Flux

Constancy of intensity: If radiation is not interacting with matter then radiance is constant along a ray.

Solar flux depends on distance from sun (inverse square law):

$$F=F_\oplusrac{r_\oplus^2}{r^2}$$

Flux decreases with distance squared because area of a sphere centered on the sun grows as r^2 and power crossing a sphere must be constant.

But intensity of solar radiation is constant because $I = F/\Omega$ and solid angle subtended by Sun decreases as $1/r^2$.

From an extended source, both radiance and flux are constant for a transparent medium. For example, the upward hemispheric flux from the moon's surface is constant with height because the solid angle subtended by the surfaces remains 2π until the curvature of the moon becomes important.

The Beer-Bouguer-Lambert Law. Concepts of Extinction (scattering+ absorption) and emission.

Extinction and emission are two main types of the interactions between an
electromagnetic radiation field and a medium (e.g., the atmosphere).

General definition:

Extinction is a process that decreases the radiant intensity, while emission increases it.

NOTE: "same name": extinction = attenuation

Radiation is **emitted** by **all** bodies that have a temperature above absolute zero (O K) (often referred to as **thermal emission**).

Extinction is due to absorption and scattering.

Absorption is a process that removes the radiant energy from an electromagnetic field and transfers it to other forms of energy.

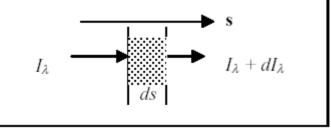
Scattering is a process that **does not** remove energy from the radiation field, but may redirect it.

NOTE: Scattering can be thought of as absorption of radiant energy followed by reemission back to the electromagnetic field with negligible conversion of energy. Thus, scattering can remove radiant energy of a light beam traveling in one direction, but can be a "source" of radiant energy for the light beams traveling in other directions.

The fundamental law of extinction is the **Beer-Bouguer-Lambert law**, which states that the extinction process is linear in the intensity of radiation and amount of matter, provided that the physical state (i.e., T, P, composition) is held constant.

NOTE: Some non-linear processes do occur as will be discussed later in the course.

Consider a small volume ΔV of infinitesimal length ds and area ΔA containing optically active matter. Thus, the change of intensity along a path ds is proportional to the amount of matter in the path.



$$dI_{\lambda} = -\beta_{e,\lambda} I_{\lambda} ds \qquad [2.6]$$

$$dI_{\lambda} = \beta_{e,\lambda} J_{\lambda} ds \qquad [2.7]$$

For emission:

$$dI_{\lambda} = \beta_{e,\lambda} J_{\lambda} ds$$

where $\beta_{e,\lambda}$ is the volume extinction coefficient (LENGTH⁻¹) and J_{λ} is the source function.

In the most general case, the source function J_{λ} has emission and scattering contributions.

Generally, the volume extinction coefficient is a function of position s.
 (Sometimes it may be expressed mathematically as β_{e,λ}(s), but s is often dropped).

NOTE: Volume extinction coefficient is often referred to as the extinction coefficient.

Extinction coefficient = absorption coefficient + scattering coefficient

$$\beta_{e,\lambda} = \beta_{a,\lambda} + \beta_{s,\lambda}$$
 [2.8]

NOTE: Extinction coefficient (as well as absorption and scattering coefficients) can be expressed in different forms according to the definition of the amount of matter (e.g., number concentrations, mass concentration, etc.) of matter in the path (see Lecture 4).

Volume and mass extinction coefficients are most often used.

Mass extinction coefficient = volume extinction coefficient/density

<u>UNITS</u>: the mass coefficient is in unit area per unit mass (LENGTH² MASS⁻¹). For instance: (cm² g⁻¹), (m² kg⁻¹), etc.

If ρ is the density (mass concentration) of a given type of particles (or molecules), then

$$\beta_{e,\lambda} = \rho \beta_{e,\lambda}^*$$

$$\beta_{s,\lambda} = \rho \beta_{s,\lambda}^*$$

$$\beta_{a,\lambda} = \rho k_{\lambda}$$
[2.9]

where the $\beta^*_{e,\lambda}$; $\beta^*_{s,\lambda}$, and k_{λ} are the mass extinction, scattering, and absorption coefficients, respectively.

NOTE: L02 uses k_{λ} for both mass extinction and mass absorption coefficients!

Extinction Cross-section

The **extinction cross section** of a given particle (or molecule) is a parameter that measures the attenuation of electromagnetic radiation by this particle (or molecule). In the same fashion, **scattering and absorption cross sections** can be defined. **UNITS:** the cross section is in unit area (LENGTH²)

If N is the particle (or molecule) number concentration of a given type of particles (or molecules), then

$$\beta_{e,\lambda} = \sigma_{e,\lambda} N$$

$$\beta_{s,\lambda} = \sigma_{s,\lambda} N$$

$$\beta_{a,\lambda} = \sigma_{a,\lambda} N$$
[2.10]

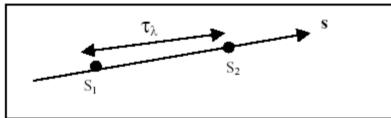
where $\sigma_{e,\lambda}$, $\sigma_{s,\lambda}$, and $\sigma_{a,\lambda}$ are the extinction, scattering, and absorbing cross sections, respectively.

<u>UNITS:</u> Particle number concentration is in the number of particles per unit volume (LENGTH⁻³).

Optical Depth

• Optical depth of a medium between points s₁ and s₂ is defined as

$$\tau_{\lambda}(s_2; s_1) = \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \beta_{e,\lambda}(s) ds$$



UNITS: optical depth is unitless.

NOTE: "same name": optical depth = optical thickness = optical path

• If $\beta_{e,\lambda}$ (s) does not depend on position (called a homogeneous optical path), thus

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_{e,\lambda}(s) = \langle \boldsymbol{\beta}_{e,\lambda} \rangle$$
 and $\boldsymbol{\tau}_{\lambda}(s_2; s_1) = \langle \boldsymbol{\beta}_{e,\lambda} \rangle (s_2 - s_1) = \langle \boldsymbol{\beta}_{e,\lambda} \rangle s$

For this case, the **Extiction law** can be expressed as

$$I_{\lambda} = I_0 \exp(-\tau) = I_0 \exp(-\langle \beta_{e,\lambda} \rangle s)$$
 [2.11]

Optical depth can be expressed in several ways:

$$\tau_{\lambda}(s_1; s_2) = \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \beta_{e,\lambda} ds = \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \rho \beta_{e,\lambda}^* ds = \int_{s_1}^{s_2} N \sigma_{e,\lambda} ds$$
 [2.12]

• If in a given volume there are several types of optically active particles each with $\beta^i_{e,\lambda}$, etc., then the optical depth can be expressed as:

$$\tau_{\lambda} = \sum_{i} \int_{s_{1}}^{s_{2}} \beta_{e,\lambda}^{i} ds = \sum_{i} \int_{s_{1}}^{s_{2}} \rho_{i} \beta_{e,\lambda}^{*i} ds = \sum_{i} \int_{s_{1}}^{s_{2}} N_{i} \sigma_{e,\lambda}^{i} ds$$
 [2.13]

where ρ_i and N_i is the mass concentrations (densities) and particles concentrations of the *i*-th species.

4. Simple aspects of radiative transfer.

Let's consider a small volume ΔV of infinitesimal length ds and area ΔA containing optically active matter. Using the **Extinction law**, the change (loss plus gain due to both the thermal emission and scattering) of intensity along a path ds is

$$dI_{\lambda} = -\beta_{e,\lambda} I_{\lambda} ds + \beta_{e,\lambda} J_{\lambda} ds$$

Dividing this equation by $\beta_{e,\lambda} ds$, we find

$$\frac{dI_{\lambda}}{\beta_{e,\lambda}ds} = -I_{\lambda} + J_{\lambda}$$
 [2.14]

Eq. [2.14] is the differential equation of radiative transfer called Schwarzchild's equation.

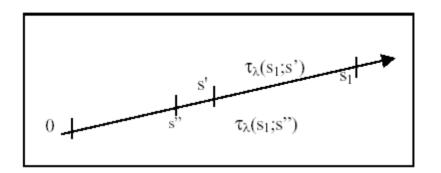
NOTE: Both I_{λ} and J_{λ} are generally functions of both position and direction.

The optical depth is

$$\tau_{\lambda}(s_1;s) = \int_{s}^{s_1} \beta_{e,\lambda}(s) ds$$

Thus

$$d\tau_{\lambda} = -\beta_{e,\lambda}(s)ds$$



Using the above expression for $d\tau_{\lambda}$, we can re-write Eq. [2.14] as

$$-\frac{dI_{\lambda}}{d\tau_{\lambda}} = -I_{\lambda} + J_{\lambda}$$
or as
$$\frac{dI_{\lambda}}{d\tau_{\lambda}} = I_{\lambda} - J_{\lambda}$$

$$[2.15]$$

These are other forms of the differential equation of radiative transfer.

Let's re-arrange terms in the above equation and multiply both sides by $exp(-\tau_{\lambda})$. We have

$$-\frac{\exp(-\tau_{\lambda})dI_{\lambda}}{d\tau_{\lambda}} + \exp(-\tau_{\lambda})I_{\lambda} = \exp(-\tau_{\lambda})J_{\lambda}$$

and (using that d[I(x)exp(-x)]=exp(-x)dI(x)-exp(-x)I(x)dx) we find

$$-d[I_{\lambda} \exp(-\tau_{\lambda})] = \exp(-\tau_{\lambda})J_{\lambda}d\tau_{\lambda}$$

Then integrating over the path from 0 to s_1 , we have

$$-\int_{0}^{s_{1}} d\left[I_{\lambda}(s)\exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_{1};s))\right] = \int_{0}^{s_{1}} \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_{1};s))J_{\lambda}d\tau_{\lambda}$$

and

$$- \left[I_{\lambda}(s_1) - I_{\lambda}(0) \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_1; 0)) \right] = \int_{0}^{s_1} \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_1; s)) J_{\lambda} d\tau_{\lambda}$$

Thus

$$I_{\lambda}(s_1) = I_{\lambda}(0) \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_1;0)) - \int_{0}^{s_1} \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_1;s)) J_{\lambda} d\tau_{\lambda}$$

and, using $d\tau_{\lambda} = -\beta_{e,\lambda}(s)ds$, we have a solution of the equation of radiative transfer (often referred to as the integral form of the radiative transfer equation):

$$I_{\lambda}(s_1) = I_{\lambda}(0) \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_1;0)) + \int_{0}^{s_1} \exp(-\tau_{\lambda}(s_1;s)) J_{\lambda} \beta_{e,\lambda} ds$$
 [2.16]

NOTE:

- i) The above equation gives monochromatic intensity at a given point propagating in a given direction (often called an elementary solution). A completely general distribution of intensity in angle and wavelengths (or frequencies) can be obtained by repeating the elementary solution for all incident beams and for all wavelengths (or frequencies).
- ii) Knowledge of the source function J_{λ} is required to solve the above equation. In the general case, the source function consists of thermal emission and scattering (or emission from scattering), depends on the position and direction, and is very complex. One may say that the radiative transfer equation is all about the source function.

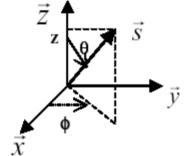
Plane-parallel atmosphere

 For many applications, the atmosphere can be approximated by a plane-parallel model to handle the vertical stratification of the atmosphere.

Plane-parallel atmosphere consists of a certain number of atmospheric layers each characterized by homogeneous properties (e.g., T, P, optical properties of a given species, etc.) and bordered by the bottom and top infinite plates (called boundaries).

 Traditionally, the vertical coordinate z is used to measure linear distances in the plane-parallel atmosphere:

$$z = s\cos(\theta)$$



where $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ denotes the angle between the upward normal and the direction of propagation of a light beam (or zenith angle) and $\boldsymbol{\phi}$ is the azimuthal angle.

Using $ds = dz/cos(\theta)$, the radiative transfer equation can be written as

$$\cos(\theta) \frac{dI_{\lambda}(z;\theta;\varphi)}{\beta_{e,\lambda}dz} = -I_{\lambda}(z;\theta;\varphi) + J_{\lambda}(z;\theta;\varphi)$$

Introducing the optical depth measured from the outer boundary downward as

$$\tau_{\lambda}(z_1; z) = \int_{z}^{z_1} \beta_{e,\lambda}(z) dz$$

and using $d\tau_{\lambda} = -\beta_{e,\lambda}(z)dz$ and $\mu = \cos(\theta)$, we have

$$\mu \frac{dI_{\lambda}(\tau;\mu;\varphi)}{d\tau} = I_{\lambda}(\tau;\mu;\varphi) - J_{\lambda}(\tau;\mu;\varphi)$$
[2.17]

Eq. [2.17] is the basic equation for the problem of radiative transfer in the plane-parallel atmosphere

 Eq.[2.17] may be solved to give the upward (or upwelling) and downward (or downwelling) intensities for a finite atmosphere which is bounded on two sites.

Upward intensity I_{λ}^{\uparrow} is for $1 \ge \mu \ge 0$ (or $0 \le \theta \le \pi/2$);

Downward intensity I_{λ}^{\downarrow} is for $-1 \le \mu \le 0$ (or $\pi/2 \le \theta \le \pi$)

$$I_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(0;\mu;\varphi)$$

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}_{1} \underline{\mathbf{Top}} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{\tau} = 0$$

$$I_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau;\mu;\varphi) \qquad \qquad I_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(0;-\mu;\varphi)$$

$$\mathbf{z} \qquad \qquad \qquad \mathbf{\tau}$$

$$I_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau_{1};\mu;\varphi) \qquad \qquad \mathbf{\tau}$$

$$\mathbf{z} = 0 \qquad \qquad \mathbf{T}$$

$$\mathbf{z} = 0 \qquad \qquad \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{z} = 0 \qquad \qquad \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}_{1}$$

Plane-parallel atmosphere.

NOTE: For downward intensity, μ is replaced by $-\mu$.

The radiative transfer equation [2.17] can be written for upward and downward intensities:

$$\mu \frac{dI_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau;\mu;\varphi)}{d\tau} = I_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau;\mu;\varphi) - J_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau;\mu;\varphi)$$
 [2.18a]

$$-\mu \frac{dI_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(\tau;-\mu;\varphi)}{d\tau} = I_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(\tau;-\mu;\varphi) - J_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(\tau;-\mu;\varphi)$$
 [2.18b]

A solution of Eq.[2.18a] gives a upward intensity in the plane-parallel atmosphere:

$$I_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau;\mu;\varphi) = I_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau_{1};\mu;\varphi) \exp(-\frac{\tau_{1} - \tau}{\mu}) + \frac{1}{\mu} \int_{\tau}^{\tau_{1}} \exp(-\frac{\tau' - \tau}{\mu}) J_{\lambda}^{\uparrow}(\tau';\mu;\varphi) d\tau'$$
[2.19a]

and a solution of Eq.[2.18b] gives a downward intensity in the plane-parallel atmosphere:

$$I_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(\tau;-\mu;\varphi) = I_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(0;-\mu;\varphi) \exp(-\frac{\tau}{\mu})$$

$$+ \frac{1}{\mu} \int_{0}^{\tau} \exp(-\frac{\tau-\tau'}{\mu}) J_{\lambda}^{\downarrow}(\tau';-\mu;\varphi) d\tau'$$
[2.19b]